

The Modern Language Journal

CONTENTS

READING MATERIAL USED IN COLLEGE DURING THE PAST FIVE YEARS IN FIRST AND SECOND YEAR FRENCH CLASSES	JOHN VAN HORN	142
INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND SUPERVISED STUDY	CHARLES H. HANCOCK	156
THE PRONUNCIATION OF SPANISH "R"	OSCAR G. RUSSELL	176
REVIEWS		186
NOTES AND NEWS		191

NEW YORK AND CHICAGO

Received in accordance with order of the Board of Directors of the
 Office of the Secretary of the Navy, dated 10th of March, 1915.
 Approved for mailing by the Secretary of the Navy, dated 10th of March, 1915.
 The undersigned hereby certifies that the above is a true and correct copy of the original.

The Modern Language Journal

published by

**The Federation of Modern Language Teachers
Associations**

and by the

**Association of Modern Language Teachers of the
Central West and South**

Managing Editor

E. W. BAGSTER-COLLINS, Captain U. S. A., Box 1608, Washington, D. C.

Associate Editors

J. P. W. CRAWFORD , Captain U. S. A., Washington, D. C.	B. J. VOS , American Legation, The Hague.
W. A. NITZL , University of Chicago, Chicago.	MARY V. YOUNG , Mount Holyoke College, South Hadley, Mass.
T. E. OLIVER , University of Illinois, Urbana.	

Consulting Editors

FROM THE NEW YORK STATE ASSOCIATION

A. G. HOST , High School, Troy, N. Y.	MARIAN P. WHITNEY , Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
----------------------------------------------	-------------------------------------------------------------------

FROM THE MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND ASSOCIATION

LOUIS A. ROUX , Newark Academy, Newark, N. J.	C. A. KRAUSE , Jamaica High School, New York.
---------------------------------------------------------	---------------------------------------------------------

FROM THE NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION

W. H. BUELL , The Hotchkiss School, Lakeville, Conn.	C. H. GRANDGENT , Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.
----------------------------------------------------------------	------------------------------------------------------------------

FROM THE CENTRAL WEST AND SOUTH ASSOCIATION

H. ALMSTEDT , University of Missouri, Columbia.	L. DUDLEY , Normal School, Emporia, Kan.
PANNIE A. BAKER , Fort Smith High School, Ark.	O. HELLER , Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.
J. L. BORGERHOFF , Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.	A. DE SALVIO , Northwestern University, Ill.
L. CASIE , University of Texas, Austin.	M. WINKLER , University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

Business Managers

A. BUSSE , Hunter College, New York.	A. COLEMAN , University of Chicago, Chicago.
---------------------------------------------	--------------------------------------------------------

The Modern Language Journal is published monthly from October to May inclusive at Hunter College, 68th Street and Park Avenue, New York and at Chicago, Ill.

Business correspondence and subscriptions should be sent to A. Busse, Hunter College, New York.

Communications for the editors and manuscripts should be addressed to E. W. Bagster-Collins, Box 1608, Washington, D. C.

The Modern Language Journal

VOLUME III

JANUARY, 1919

No. 4

READING MATERIAL USED IN COLLEGE DURING THE PAST FIVE YEARS IN FIRST AND SECOND YEAR FRENCH CLASSES

INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT

The statistics embodied in the present report are tabulated from replies received from a letter of inquiry sent in February, 1918, to a hundred and forty universities and colleges. Information was requested concerning the reading texts used in first and second year French and Spanish classes during the past five years and concerning the amount of reading done in these classes. Answers were received from sixty-eight institutions. Of these answers sixty-six deal with first year French and sixty-five with second year French; sixty-four deal with first year Spanish, and fifty-four with second year Spanish.¹ About half of the replies contain complete or nearly complete records for the five years. Others submit complete reports for one, two, three or four years. Still others furnish incomplete data for the whole or for a portion of the five years. In some instances the lists of books are supplemented by valuable explanations and comments.

The author of this article wishes to thank all of those who, by answering his letter of inquiry, made possible the results presented in this paper.

A few of the replies received contain specific figures as to the number of pages read in each of the five years in question. Others supply general figures concerning the quantity of reading that is usually done. In the majority of cases the figures have been compiled through the process of adding the number of pages in the texts mentioned.

¹The statistics for Spanish will appear in the February number of THE JOURNAL. *annual*

AMOUNT OF READING
FIRST YEAR FRENCH—AMOUNT OF READING DONE

Year	No. of institutions reporting	Av. no. of pages read	Institutions reading less than 100 pages	100-200	200-300	300-400	400-500	500-600	600-700	over 700
1913-14...	30	289	2	6	10	5	4	2	1	0
1914-15...	36	308	0	12	8	7	6	2	1	0
1915-16...	44	306	0	14	10	9	5	3	1	2
1916-17...	52	302	0	12	15	12	8	2	2	1
1917-18...	46	286	1	10	17	7	7	3	1	0
Totals...	208	298	3	54	60	40	30	12	6	3

SECOND YEAR FRENCH—AMOUNT OF READING DONE

Year	No. of institutions reporting	Av. no. of pages read	Institutions reading less than 200 pages	200-300	300-400	400-500	500-600	600-700	700-800	800-900	900-1000	1000-1200	over 1200
1913-14...	31	656	1	0	4	6	5	3	3	0	2	6	1
1914-15...	34	694	1	1	1	6	6	5	2	1	4	5	2
1915-16...	38	671	0	3	3	7	6	1	5	1	3	8	1
1916-17...	45	706	0	2	2	10	6	3	4	2	6	7	3
1917-18...	44	679	1	2	3	7	8	5	1	6	2	7	3
Totals	192	686	3	8	13	36	31	17	15	9	17	33	10

It is obvious that errors must inevitably creep into any calculation of this kind. It is often impossible to decide what edition of a text has been used, or whether or not the text has been read in full. Lists cannot always be complete, especially for the first and second years of the five-year period. Not all institutions had determined their choice of books for the current semester, when the letter of inquiry was sent. Different sections of the same class, (particularly in second year work) do not always read the same material.

In second year work we have to face also the problem of outside reading. Some institutions appear to include outside reading in their reports, while others either omit it or allude vaguely to it. In general, the aim here has been to present the results including outside assignments, wherever such outside assignments can be regarded as consistently given to a whole class. It is impossible to consider properly cases in which individual assignments of varying amount are given to each student. It is believed that the whole question of outside reading plays a comparatively small part in the figures here collected. Such seems to be the usual tenor of the replies received.

In the tabulation of statistics each report has been considered separately. The endeavor has been to draw the most probable conclusions from each case. Suggestions on the part of the writer of a report and comparisons with other parts of the same report frequently lead to the solution of a problem that at first glance seems insoluble. Where assurance is given that data are quite incomplete, no attempt has been made to include them in the figures here presented concerning amount of reading.

However misleading the results may be for any one institution it is believed that in the totality of cases they must approximate the truth. The chances for percentage of error in any one direction in thirty or forty reports are manifestly less than they are in one report. Moreover, the numerical statistics here tabulated receive at least partial confirmation from statements made by many who answered the letter of inquiry.

FIRST YEAR FRENCH

The amount of reading done in first year French has not varied very much during the past five years. The general average, as shown in the tables, is 298 pages. The average for the first and the last years falls slightly below that figure, while the three middle years indicate quantities slightly in excess of the normal. It is possible that the deficiency in 1913-1914 and in 1917-1918 is caused largely by incomplete reports. In no case can these slight fluctuations be regarded as in themselves significant. Remarks in some of the explanatory letters that accompany the replies suggest the possibility that the decrease in the present session may be due to a desire to accomplish more oral work. However, the most

obvious deduction to be drawn from the tables is that the amount of reading to be done in first year French has been pretty well standardized. The general average corresponds pretty closely to the amounts given as desirable in most approved syllabi.

There is another point of view from which the statistics may be studied. Regardless of the fact that many institutions have submitted statements for two, three, four or five years, if we take each list of books for one year as a unit, we find that there are 208 reports dealing with the amount of reading done during one year in first year French. Of these 208 reports 100 are included in the list that ranges from 200 to 400 pages, and 154 come within the limits of 100 and 400 pages. That is to say, slightly under 50% conform closely to the general average, and about 75% conform fairly closely to it. The columns extending from 400 to 600 pages include 42 reports, or about 20% of the total number. Three reports amount to less than 100 pages, six indicate between 600 and 700, and three allow for more than 700. Thus, a slight majority of the reports (56%) fall somewhat below the general average, and a slight minority (44%) go above it. The general average is attained by the exceptional amount of reading covered in a few institutions. However, there is nothing in these figures significant enough to allow any argument against the general average of about 300 pages.

SECOND YEAR FRENCH

The general average of pages read in second year French during the five year period is 686. The amount fluctuates from year to year, the maximum being 706 pages in 1916-1917, and the minimum 656 pages in 1913-1914. The absence of any consistent tendency toward increase or decrease, and the fact that the fluctuations are not great indicate a situation approaching standardization. The decrease in the current year, although in itself unimportant, may be due to the desire for oral practice that is mentioned in several of the letters of comment.

Taking a report for one year as a unit we find that 192 separate reports are given for second year French. Only 16 $\frac{2}{3}$ % (32 reports) come within the normal limits of 600 and 800 pages. Nearly 42% (80 reports) fall between 300 and 600 pages, and most of these are under 500. Nearly 31% (59 reports) show between 800 and 1200 pages, and most of these are over 900. Three reports

indicate under 200 pages, eight are between 200 and 300, and ten over 1200. Thus, the general average represents a very small minority of reports. There would appear to be two widely differing practices in second year French. One set of institutions aims to read from 300 to 600 pages, and another prefers to undertake an amount in excess of 800 pages. Possibly full reports on outside reading would explain a part of this discrepancy, but they could not account fully for such a wide difference. Therefore, when we speak of standardization in second year French, we should probably have in mind two very different standards representing two very different purposes. A glance at the tables will show that in each year the number of institutions conforming to the general average is rather small.

FIRST YEAR FRENCH

TEXT	Institu- tion	Times	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	Miscella- neous
Le Voyage de M. Perrichon	26	74	13	14	14	15	14	4
La Belle France	15	24	1	1	2	9	8	3
Aldrich and Foster: A French Reader	14	24	5	5	7	2	5	0
L'Abbé Constantin	13	22	2	1	4	8	5	2
Colomba	12	21*	2	1	2	4	7	5
Daudet: Short Stories	11	20*	2	1	2	3	7	2
Maupassant: Short Stories	10	20*	1	2	3	5	5	5
Le Français et sa patrie	1	19	4	2	2	2	3	4
Madame Thérèse	8	14	2	2	2	4	2	6
Le Tour de la France par deux enfants	8	12	0	2	4	1	1	2
La Tulipe noire	6	10	1	1	2	2	1	4
Allen and Schoell: French Daily Life	5	10	0	0	0	3	1	3
Guerber: Contes et légendes	5	10	1	3	2	3	1	4
Gavroche	4	10	2	1	3	2	2	0
François and Giroud: Simple French	5	9	1	2	2	3	1	0
La Poudre aux yeux	5	9	1	1	2	4	1	0
En France	5	8	0	1	1	2	4	0
La Grammaire	5	8	0	0	1	3	0	4
Mémoires d'un collégien	5	8	1	2	1	3	1	0
Kuhns: French Reading for Beginners	2	8	1	1	3	2	1	0
L'Évasion du Duc de Beaufort	4	7	1	0	1	3	2	0
Syns: French Reader	4	7	1	1	2	2	1	0
Giese: Graded French Method	3	7	0	2	1	2	1	1
Vingt mille lieux sous les mers	3	7	1	2	1	1	1	1
La Mare au diable	5	6	0	1	0	1	4	0
Contes extraits de Myrrha	5	6	2	3	0	0	1	0
Lectures faciles	3	6	0	1	2	1	1	1
Atala	2	6	1	1	1	1	1	1
La Bataille de dames	2	6	1	1	1	1	0	2

FIRST YEAR FRENCH

Text	Institu- tions	Times	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	Miscella- neous
La Tâche du petit Pierre.....	2	6	1	1	1	2	1	0
Le Petit Chose.....	5	5	0	2	1	0	2	0
Le Roi des montagnes.....	5	5	0	0	3	0	0	2
Un Mariage d'amour.....	5	5	1	0	1	0	1	2
L'Été de la Saint-Martin.....	4	5	0	0	3	1	1	0
La Mère Michel et son chat.....	3	5	1	2	1	0	0	1
Les Trois Mousquetaires.....	3	5	1	1	1	1	1	0
Le Gendre de M. Poirier.....	3	5	1	2	1	1	0	0
Monte Cristo.....	3	5	0	0	3	1	1	0
Snow & Lebon: French Reader.....	3	5	1	1	2	1	0	0
Le Tour du monde en quatre-vingt jours.....	3	5	0	0	0	0	1	4
La Chute.....	2	5	0	1	1	1	2	0
Méry: Deux contes.....	2	5	2	1	1	1	0	0
Les Misérables.....	1	5	1	1	1	1	1	0
Weill: Historical French Reader.....	1	5	1	1	1	1	1	0
Totals ¹		606	70	84	110	135	119	88

¹The totals include books read less than 5 times. Books read less than 5 times are listed in an appendix.

SECOND YEAR FRENCH

TEXT	Institu- tion	Times	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	Miscella- neous
Colomba	19	49	7	7	8	12	14	1
Les Misérables	18	43*	4	8	7	12	7	5
Hernani	16	43	6	7	9	9	3	9
Le Gendre de M. Poirier	15	36	4	6	4	6	7	9
Daudet: Short Stories	15	33*	2	7	10	6	4	4
Tartarin de Tarascon	15	29	3	3	7	7	6	3
La Mare au diable	17	28*	3	3	2	7	7	6
Maupassant: Short Stories	12	27*	4	3	5	7	6	1
Le Roi des montagnes	14	25*	6	3	1	5	6	4
Le Livre de mon ami	10	24	3	4	5	4	4	4
Buffum: Short Stories	13	22*	4	4	3	2	2	7
Le Cid	8	22	4	4	5	5	3	1
Les Trois Mousquetaires	8	21	2	4	3	5	3	4
Le Pêcheur d'Islande	12	19	1	2	4	3	5	4
Eugénie Grandet	12	19*	1	1	0	3	1	9
Le Monde où l'on s'ennuie	9	18	4	2	1	3	4	4
Cyrano de Bergerac	9	17	2	1	2	4	2	6
L'Avare	7	16	1	2	3	6	3	1
Quatre-vingt treize	9	15	4	1	2	2	2	4
Le Voyage de M. Perrichon	8	21	1	7	2	3	5	3
Les Romanesques	9	14	2	1	2	4	3	1
Graziella	5	14	2	3	3	5	1	0
Buffum: Contes français	9	13*	0	0	1	1	3	8
La Chute	6	13	2	2	2	2	1	4
Bowen: French Lyrics	7	12	2	3	2	3	2	0
La Tulipe noire	5	12	2	0	3	2	3	2
La Question d'argent	5	12*	3	1	1	1	1	5
Les Oberlé	8	11	0	1	2	2	3	4
L'Abbé Constantin	6	11	1	1	1	4	2	2

SECOND YEAR FRENCH

TEXT	Institu- tions	Times	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	Miscella- neous
La petite Fadette.....	6	11	2	1	2	2	2	2
Le Bourgeois gentilhomme.....	5	11	3	4	2	0	1	1
Monte Cristo.....	8	10	0	1	2	3	2	2
Le Petit Chose.....	5	10	0	2	1	1	2	4
Lavisse: Cours moyen.....	2	10*	2	2	2	2	2	0
La Poudre aux yeux.....	8	9	1	2	0	4	0	2
Mlle. de la Seiglière.....	5	9*	2	1	1	1	2	2
Roman d'un jeune homme pauvre.....	5	9	1	2	0	3	2	1
Le Barbier de Séville.....	4	9	1	1	2	1	2	2
Carmen and other Stories.....	6	8	0	2	1	1	2	2
Le Crime de Sylvestre Bonnard.....	5	8	2	1	1	2	1	1
La Fontaine: Fables.....	5	8	0	4	1	1	2	0
François le champi.....	4	8	0	1	2	1	2	2
Jettatura.....	4	8	1	2	1	1	0	3
Madame Thérèse.....	4	8	2	1	1	0	1	3
L'Évasion du Duc de Beaufort.....	3	8	1	0	0	2	4	0
Pattes de mouche.....	6	7	0	3	1	2	1	0
Les Précieuses ridicules.....	4	7	1	0	0	1	0	5
Atala.....	3	7	1	2	1	2	0	1
Athalie.....	3	7	1	1	1	1	1	2
La Bataille de dames.....	3	7	0	1	2	2	2	0
Cent meilleurs poèmes.....	3	7	0	0	0	1	0	0
Weill: <i>Historica</i> French Reader.....	3	7	1	1	1	2	2	0
Sans Famille.....	5	6	1	1	1	2	1	0
Musset: Trois Comédies.....	4	6*	0	0	0	1	0	5
Patrou: Causeries en France.....	3	6	0	1	1	1	1	2
Pour la Couronne.....	3	6	1	1	1	0	3	0
L'Été de la Saint-Martin.....	2	6	1	1	1	1	2	0
La mère de la marquise.....	2	6	1	1	2	1	1	0

SECOND YEAR FRENCH

Text	Institu- tion	Times	1913-14	1914-15	1915-16	1916-17	1917-18	Miscella- neous
Duval: Littérature française.....	2	6	1	1	1	2	1	0
Super: Scènes de la révolution française.....	2	6	1	1	0	0	0	4
Contes bretons.....	5	5	0	0	0	1	3	1
Origines de la France contemporaine.....	4	5	1	2	1	0	0	1
Le Soldat américain en France.....	5	5	0	0	0	1	4	0
Gringoire.....	4	5	2	1	1	0	1	0
La Lizardière.....	3	5	0	0	1	1	1	2
La Belle-Nivernaise.....	3	5	0	0	0	2	1	2
Mérimée: Quatre contes.....	3	5	0	0	0	0	2	3
Contes des romanciers naturalistes.....	3	5	1	0	0	1	1	2
Ursule Mirouet.....	3	5*	1	1	0	1	0	2
Lamarquie: Selections.....	2	5*	0	0	0	0	0	5
La Belle France.....	2	5	0	1	1	0	2	1
Fortier: Précis de l'histoire de France.....	2	5	0	2	1	1	1	0
Musset: Selections.....	2	5*	0	0	0	0	0	5
Paul et Virginie.....	2	5	1	1	1	2	0	0
Ruy Blas.....	2	5	0	0	0	0	0	5
Vigny: Selections.....	2	5*	0	0	0	0	0	5
Cosette.....	1	5	1	1	1	1	1	0
L'Abbé Daniel.....	1	5*	1	1	1	1	1	0
Lettres de mon moulin.....	1	5*	1	1	1	1	1	0
Travailleurs de la mer.....	2	5	1	1	1	2	0	0
Trois semaines en France.....	1	5	1	1	1	1	1	0
Warren: French Prose of the Seventeenth Century.....	1	5	1	1	1	1	1	0
Totals ¹		1264	146	184	194	244	223	273

¹The totals include books read less than 5 times. Books read less than 5 times are listed in an appendix.

INDIVIDUAL TEXTS

In the tables of figures for the individual texts, the first column contains the number of institutions that have used each book; the second column shows the total number of times that each book has been used whether in the same or in different institutions; the next five columns give the figures for the use of each book in separate years; the last column includes cases where the date could not be determined.

Again it must be pointed out that errors are inevitable. In some of the lists it is stated that a book has been used "more than once," or "two or three times" or "repeatedly," etc. Absolute accuracy in the tabulation is obviously impossible. In each case attention has been paid to the probable truth. In a great many texts there may well be an unavoidable error of from one to five in the total number of times it has been used. Figures that are particularly open to doubt have been starred. In no case should it be considered important that one book has been used slightly more often than another. It is believed that the figures taken as a whole are substantially correct. They correspond pretty accurately to the impression gained from merely reading the lists, and they are also partially confirmed by numerous statements in explanatory letters as to the popularity of certain books.

It must be remembered that in the later years statistics are more complete than in the earlier ones. Therefore, if a book is employed five times in 1913-1914 and five times in 1917-1918, it is relatively more popular in the former case than in the later.

FIRST YEAR FRENCH

Disregarding the fact that a book has been read several times in the same year or in different years, if we take each single use of a text as a unit, we find that the tables for first year French show 606 instances of the employment of some text as reading material.¹ In 1913-1914 there are 70 such instances; in 1914-1915, 84; in 1915-1916, 110; in 1916-1917, 35; in 1917-1918, 119; in the undated or miscellaneous group, 88.

Among the texts included in the list for first year French *Le Voyage de M. Perrichon* is by far the most popular. It has been

¹For instance, if one book has been used 20 times, another 15 times, and still another 5 times, this means a total of 40 times that a class has read some text.

used more than three times as often as any other book. Inasmuch as 26 institutions have adopted it 74 times, each institution must have used it about three times, on the average. The number 74 represents about 12% of the total number 606. That means that *Le Voyage de M. Perrichon* accounts for more than one-tenth of the instances in which a book has been chosen for class use. In 1913-1914 it accounted for 19% of the total; in 1914-1915, 17%; in 1915-1916, 13%; in 1916-1917, 11%; and in 1917-1918, 12%.

The next literary texts in order of occurrence are *l'Abbé Constantin*, *Colomba*, short stories by Daudet (various editions), short stories by Maupassant (various editions) and *Madame Thérèse*. *La Tulipe noire* and *Gavroche* complete the list of single literary texts that have been used ten times or more. All of these books have been read more often in 1916-1917 and in 1917-1918 than in 1913-1914 and in 1914-1915. If we consider percentages, *l'Abbé Constantin*, *Colomba*, Daudet and Maupassant have evidenced a notable growth in popularity. *L'Abbé Constantin* was used 3 times in the first two years of the five year period, and 13 times in the last two; the figures for *Colomba* are 3 and 11; for Daudet's stories 3 and 10; for Maupassant's stories 3 and 10. The second number is in each case more than three times as great as the first.

The statistics presented in this paper show a remarkably even proportion between literary and informational matter. The clearest way to present the facts on this score is to divide all the texts into two classes, which we shall somewhat arbitrarily call literary and non-literary. No such division can be made scientifically, but for purposes of discussion a working line of cleavage can be established. Thus, under literary works are included all novels, stories and plays by single authors and collections of stories or plays by the same or different authors, provided such collections are not elementary readers. Under non-literary texts are grouped books of travel, and history, descriptions of life and customs, informative documents and, despite obvious objections, elementary readers.

As has been observed, there are 606 instances of the employment of a text in first year French. Out of these 606 instances, 405 or 67% represent literary works. The total for 1913-1914 is 70; 49 (70%) are literary. The total for 1914-1915 is 84; 55 (65%) are literary. The total for 1915-1916 is 110; 74 (67%) are

literary. The total for 1916-1917 is 135; 83 (61%) are literary. The total for 1917-1918 is 119; 76 (64%) are literary. Thus, for five years there has been very little fluctuation in the proportion between literary and non-literary texts. The very slight decrease in the literary texts in the last two years is not sufficient to prove that informational material is encroaching upon literature. It merely suggests the possibility that such an encroachment is beginning. In general, literary works represent about two-thirds of the total number of books employed.² If we consider that some elementary readers contain much literary material, the percentage would be even greater.

SECOND YEAR FRENCH

The tables for second year French contain 1264 instances of the employment of a text. Of these, 146 belong to 1913-1914, 184 to 1914-1915, 194 to 1915-1916, 244 to 1916-1917, 233 to 1917-1918 and 273 to the miscellaneous column. *Colomba* stands first in the total number of times used with 49, or just short of 4% of the total. *Les Misérables* and *Hernani* come next in order, each having been used 43 times. However, if we added the figures for *La Chute* and *Cosette* to *Les Misérables* we should have a total of 61, which would make this book the most popular text in second year French. *Le Gendre de M. Poirer* and Daudet's short stories stand in the same category, each having between 30 and 40 instances of use. A glance at the tables will show that 29 texts have been used between 10 and 30 times.

All the popular books in second year French are literary. Examination of the figures for separate years discloses no decided tendency toward growing or waning popularity in most of the leading second year texts. A comparison of the figures for the last two years with those for the first two years is a pretty good index to the changes of fortune that a text may experience. *Colomba*, *Les Misérables*, *La Mare au Diable*, *Pêcheur d'Islande* and *Les Romanesques* would seem to be increasing in popularity. However, it is dangerous to place much reliance on such small figures as those that illustrate the use of one text in one year.

JOHN VAN HORNE.

University of Illinois.

²It should be noticed that this refers to the total number of books, and not to the total number of pages.

APPENDIX

FIRST YEAR FRENCH

The following texts have been used four times each in first year French:

Roux: French Reader,
l'Étincelle,
Fabliaux et contes,
Sans Famille,
les Boulinard,

Buffum: Short Stories,
Tartarin de Tarascon,
l'abbé Daniel,
le Chien de Brisquet.

The following have been used three times:

Ballard: Reader,
Chez nous,
Contes bleus,
François le champi,
Kullmer and Cabeen: France,

Mademoiselle de la Seiglière,
Bowen: French Lyrics
Une Année de collège à Paris,
l'Enfant des grenadiers,

The following have been used twice:

Le Château des merveilles,
Contes et saynètes,
le Conscrit de 1813,
François: Easy Standard French,
Pierrille,
la Mère de la marquise,
Marie Claire à Villevieille,
la Belle-Nivernaise,
Notre Dame de Paris,
la France qui travaille,

François: Easy French Reading,
Frazer and Squair: Reader,
la Lizardière,
On rend l'Argent,
Aventures du capitaine Pamphile,
Pattou: Causeries en France,
Petits contes de France,
Quatre contes,
Super: French Reader,
Valabrègne,

The following have been used once:

Aventures du dernier Abencérage,
Au pôle en ballon,
Bazin: Contes,
Bowen: Scientific Reader,
Carmen and other Stories,
Doria,
French Fairy Tales,
Gil Blas,
Guerlac: Standard French Authors,
Jeanne d'Arc,
Koren and Chapman: French
Reader,
la Cigale chez les fourmis,
la fille de Roland,
la Neuvaïne de collette,
la petite villa,

le Blé qui lève,
le Chien du capitaine,
le Mari de Madame Solange,
les Oberlé,
Ma première visite à Paris,
Mon oncle et mon curé,
Pêcheur d'Islande,
Quatre-vingt-treize,
Récits historiques de la guerre de
1870,
Rollins: French Reader,
Tartarin sur les Alpes,
Theuriet: Trois Contes,
Waterloo,
Zadig.

SECOND YEAR FRENCH

The following texts have been used four times each in second year French:

Le Blé qui lève,
la Cagnotte,
le Duel,
Abdallah,

le Français et sa patrie,
Jeanne d'Arc,
le Juif polonais,
Mon oncle et mon curé,

la Recherche de l'absolu,
 Bazin: Six Contes,
 le Tour du monde en quatre-vingt
 jours,
 Bowen: Scientific Reader,
 Freeland and Marchant: Anthology

Gil Blas,
 Michelet: Extraits,
 la Princesse lointaine,
 Andromaque,
 Rousseau: Selections,
 Voltaire: Selections.

The following have been used three times:

Trois Comédies,
 le Conscrit de 1813,
 Cinq scènes de la comédie humaine,
 les Boulinaud,
 Bug Jargal,
 Cameron: Tales of France,
 la Grammaire,
 Kulmer & Cabel: France,
 le Luthier de Crémone,
 Mémoires d'un collégien,
 le Misanthrope,

Ramuntcho,
 Weill: French Newspaper Reader,
 Vingt mille lieues sous les mers,
 l'Année scientifique,
 Contes fantastiques,
 Histoire des Girondins,
 le Médecin malgré lui,
 le Merle blanc,
 On rend l'argent,
 Secs et parchemins,

The following have been used twice:

Mérimée: Charles IX,
 le Curé de Tours,
 Modern French Stories,
 le Cousin Pons,
 Easy French Plays,
 l'Étincelle,
 les Fourberies de Scapin,
 la France qui travaille,
 Lazare: Lectures historiques,
 Marguerite: Strasbourg,
 le Marquis de Villemer,
 les Petits oiseaux,
 Roman d'un enfant,
 le Siège de Paris,
 Ma sœur Béatrice,
 Tartarin sur les Alpes,
 Waterloo,

l'Aiglon,
 les Femmes fortes,
 Aventures du dernier Abencérage,
 Bossuet: Selections,
 la Canne de jonc,
 Chénier: Selections,
 Flaubert: Correspondence,
 Fraser and Squair: Reader,
 French Anecdotes,
 les Grandes Inventions,
 Hugo: Selections,
 Leconte de Lisle: Selections,
 Heuze: Pratique de l'agriculture,
 Madame de Staël: Selections,
 Sully Prud'homme: Selections,
 la Triade française,
 Turcaret,

The following have been used once:

les Ailes de courage,
 l'Ancien régime,
 l'Anneau d'argent,
 l'Armée française sur le front,
 les Aveugles,
 Ballard: French Reader,
 Un beau mariage,
 Bierman and Frank: Conversa-
 tional French Reader,
 Bonaparte en Égypte,
 Ca et là en France,
 le Cachet rouge,
 Un Caprice,
 la Cause du flambeau,
 le Chevalier de maison Rouge,
 Chez nous,
 le Chien du capitaine,

Cinna,
 Cinq Mars,
 Coppée and Maupassant: Tales,
 la Débâcle,
 Dike: Scientific Reader,
 Dix contes modernes,
 Dosia,
 En France,
 Ma sœur Henriette,
 Souvenirs d'enfance et de jeunesse,
 Super: Reader,
 la Tâche du petit Pierre,
 Tintagiles,
 le Tour de la France par deux
 enfants,
 le Verre d'eau,
 Zadig.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND SUPERVISED STUDY*

Adapting Work to Individual Differences

Little has been done in modern language teaching towards adapting work to suit individual differences. This is, however, one of the vital movements in our present day education, and the teacher of modern languages should not lag behind in regard to it.

Simultaneous class instruction was, with few exceptions, the standard procedure throughout the nineteenth century, although in earlier centuries individual instruction had been the rule.

However, towards the end of the nineteenth century educators began to call attention to the waste incurred by the system of simultaneous instruction¹ for the whole class, the disadvantages being felt by those who could not keep up with the class and those who were able to go faster than the class. Thus the two classes of students who most needed individual attention were the very ones whose needs were least met.

Statistics were furnished to show that these differences in capacities are constant among the human kind, and this has now been established with scientific accuracy.² This means, as Thorndike has put it,³ that "the highest tenth of her (any) class will in any one trait have an average ability of from one and three-fourths to four times that of the lowest tenth."

Various plans for providing for these differences have been worked out. The Pueblo plan of doing away with all simultaneous class instruction was originated at the end of the eighties of the nineteenth century in Pueblo, Colorado. Under this plan the child's school day is taken up by study. There are only few recitations. In Pueblo, this plan gave high satisfaction. As reported by Mr. Search,⁴ the inventor of the plan, the brightest

*This paper is an abridgement of Chapter XIII of *Methods of Teaching Modern Languages*, to be published by The World Book Co.

¹W. H. Holmes—School Organization and the Individual Child. The David Press, Worcester, Mass., 1912.

²L. P. Ayres—Laggards in our Schools. Russell Sage Foundation 1909.
A. A. Curtis—Standard Tests in English. El. Sch. Teach., XIV, 374-92.
Thorndike—Educational Psychology. Teachers College, New York, 1914.
3 Vols. Vol. 3. 142-388.

³E. L. Thorndike—Principles of Teaching. New York, 1916. p. 73 ff.

⁴P. W. Search—An Ideal School. Appleton, 1901.

pupils did up to three and one-half times as much work as the poorest. The plan was later tried in numerous other places.⁵

The scheme called the Batavia plan was worked out at Batavia, New York, and consists of using part of the time formerly given to class recitations for supervised study periods for each student. During these periods the teacher gives his time to each student in turn or to such as are particularly in need of help, aiding them by suggestion, etc., or by mapping out work for those who have completed the assignment.⁶

Another plan which has sprung up in various places is the group plan. The class is divided into two or more groups according to the capacities of the individuals. Generally a student leader is appointed for each section. The teacher divides his time between the sections. The better sections do additional work.

This plan has the advantage that the bright students can do more work, and that the poor ones can do theirs more thoroughly than if they had to keep up with the better pupils. A beneficial spirit of competition is also engendered.⁷

A fourth plan is to conduct the class as a whole but to work out carefully additional assignments in each chapter or subject for the brighter pupils, who are also excused, at times, from the class recitation, when it is thought that they do not need it. In such cases they are assigned work to be done in another room which is to be reported on later in the class.

Experiments in adapting modern language instruction to individual capacities have also been made, or are now in progress. And of course numerous teachers are in the habit of providing extra work for bright pupils. However, the task of working out definite procedures which any well-equipped teacher can put into operation in his class room has been undertaken and some results are available.

Deihl⁸ has reported on an experiment in composition work in

⁵On the Pueblo plan, see also E. J. Swift—*Mind in the Making*. Scribner, 1908, Ed. Rev. 7; 154—70 (1894) also, Ed. Rev. 7, 154—70.

⁶J. Kennedy. *The Batavia Plan after Fourteen Years of Trial*. Elementary School Teacher, XII, 449—59 (1912).

⁷Cf. Hornbrook—the Laboratory Method in Teaching Mathematics—American Book Co.

⁸J. D. Deihl—*Individual Differences and Note Book Work in Modern Foreign Languages*. MODERN LANGUAGE JOURNAL 1, 52 ff. 59.

first and second year French and first year German in the University of Wisconsin High School. The plan was to have a standard assignment for all students, viz.: to go on with the following exercise of the book whenever the assignment for the day had been covered. This provided for extra assignments for the bright pupils. Further, copying of the work done at home, or during study periods, was done during the class periods, when the student was able to call on the teacher for any needed help. Further, the teacher did the correcting of the work during the class periods, each student in turn bringing his book to the teacher's desk. This again afforded the individual personal attention. The results were highly satisfactory. When any student had finished the amount of writing which was to be done, he was allowed to begin extensive reading. Considerable of this was done, even in the first year class, while "several second-year pupils read as much as six hundred pages extra, three hundred of which was reported on to the teacher."—"The poorest read about forty pages extra." "It will not work well in classes of more than fifteen or sixteen pupils, because of the volume of work turned out."

In a first year German class a similar experiment was tried. Ten minutes daily were devoted to writing. An extra assignment—extra paragraphs of the grammar being used—was indicated on the board every day. When a student had finished the regular assignment, he went on to do the extra work.

In this class the correcting was done partly by the teacher, who passed from seat to seat during the writing period, correcting as much of the work as possible. The rest was done by the teacher outside of the class period.

As to the results the writer remarks: "It will readily be seen that while some pupils did only the required minimum, others would do a large part or all of the extra exercises as well, thus getting an extra amount of practice."

Beginning with the school year 1916-17, Handschin, Miami University, used the group plan in second and third year German. This experiment has not heretofore been reported. It proved very satisfactory and has since been used regularly in these classes after the opening four to six weeks of the school year. The plan is to divide the class into two sections, according to abilities. At first three sections were tried, but it was found impracticable to supervise three groups properly.

There is a standard assignment for the whole class; so much reading, so much writing, etc. To make this assignment, with the necessary development exercises, the sections are called together towards the close of the period, and the teacher does this work.

For the rest of the time, the sections sit in separate parts of the room where they will not hear, or otherwise disturb one another. The slow section does the standard assignment, the fast section has an additional assignment of five or ten or fifteen pages of reading in an additional text. This is extensive reading, which they are instructed to read over twice, at least, in order to learn the vocabulary and to be able to retell it in the foreign language.

When the members of this section have finished the regular assignment they begin the retelling of the contents of their extra assignment.

Each group has a leader. The best students in the class are chosen for these two positions, but they must also have some pedagogical and executive ability. Most classes contain the necessary material for this. Besides, the first weeks this plan is operated the teacher must watch his leaders closely, take notes on their procedures, hand them a transcript (carbon copy) of these at end of the hour, and call their attention to faulty pedagogical procedure. For instance: faulty questioning, calling on the person first and stating question later, too easy or too difficult questions, allowing one pupil to recite too long, allowing mistakes in grammar to pass uncorrected, telling the form when only directions for finding the form should be given, not dividing the work properly between board and seat work, that is, some should be given a translation of a hard passage at the board, others should be sent to the board to write what another has just recited, another sent to correct a translation, while another is retelling while seated, etc.

The procedures in the two sections are not quite alike. The slow section will need more translation. This can be done at the board partly and students of the fast section sent to correct it.

The leaders will need to be retained throughout the year. It is too much work to train new ones. They may sometimes be interchanged at the end of a semester between the fast and slow section.

Persons should be promoted from the slow to the fast section when they deserve it. Demotions occasionally (very rarely) need also to be made.

The leader is responsible for conducting the recitation of his group, but the teacher will indicate to him, clearly, just what shall be done in each kind of work. For instance, on reading days he will have a certain standard procedure. So much translation of the difficult passages, if any, which students desire to have translated, then question and answer method, then the written or oral exercises based on the reading. Thus, barring changes which the teacher will indicate to the leader at the beginning of the hour, the leader knows what to do and how much time to allow for each exercise.

For composition days, etc., there will be a similar standard procedure, so that the leader knows just what to do, unless the teacher indicates a change from the regular program for that day.

If for any reason special drills, or work too difficult for the leaders, become necessary, the teacher can take the whole class for an hour himself.

The teacher divides his time between the two groups, keeps his eye on the board work, sits as a listener, or as the teacher, now with one group, now with the other. If oral work is arranged for a certain time of the hour in each group, he can be with each section when that particular work is performed.

In 1916-17 the fast section of third year German read 300 pages extra, and moreover there was distinctly a higher order of work in that section than in the other. In the second year the amount of extra reading was less, but still considerable. One of the leaders in this class was unable to conduct certain kinds of work satisfactorily, hence the class had at times to be conducted as a whole.

Interest is keener under this plan. Four promotions were made during the year.

The plan can be varied to suit other conditions and to include other kinds of work. For instance, a leader may give a dictation to one section, while the teacher is teaching the other. Instead of extra reading, writing may be done. Developing new material, however, should be done by the teacher, as should also all directions for study be given by the teacher. It is recommended to be introduced (with caution) in classes in normal colleges and universities in which good leaders may be found. With caution, because every teacher needs to feel his way carefully with any new plan. Visitors in the classes were unanimously enthusiastic over its workings.

The special assignment plan, also, is being used by numerous modern language teachers. This should become universal. It is not difficult in modern language work. Extra reading assignments, especially, are easy to administer. They may be reported to the class in the foreign language, if the student is able and willing, otherwise in English, to teacher or class. Bright students should always be kept occupied in this way.

Excellent students should also be given opportunity to advance to a higher class whenever possible. This means a great deal to the student. It means work for the teacher, of course, because the extra written work must be corrected. Sometimes students of higher classes, or, in college, teachers-in-training, can do the bulk of this work for the teacher.

Supervised Study

The chief points in favor of supervised study may be set down as follows: First, it is bound up irrevocably with the problem of individual differences, and that this is a problem which must be met, hardly anyone will dispute. The plans for providing for individual differences entail as much, or more, work as any of the schemes for supervised study now in use. Second, the inefficiency of the present system of home study coupled with the present scheme of study in Study Hall, or during vacant hours, is shown by the prevailing high per cent. of repeaters and failures. Third, the teacher is the only person able to give the proper kind of help, and the conditions in the school room are most favorable to study and cannot be duplicated elsewhere.

The arguments against it are: 1. Pupils should learn to solve their own problems, and thus really learn to think. 2. It puts an added burden on the teacher, at least in the number of hours.

That the present system of study is inefficient is a fact attested by many careful and thorough studies into which we cannot go here. It has been shown that the student does not find sufficient time because of the stress and distractions of modern life; that the conditions in the majority of homes are unhygienic for study purposes; that parents and elders are often persuaded to help, and that such help is often given unwisely, or that, all help failing, the student flounders, often to no avail, to help himself; that the present system of Study Hall also is not efficient for various reasons; that, however, a teacher can give eminent aid in the branch

of his specialty, if a certain time and place are set aside for this, at which the entire group or class assemble to do their studying.

On the other hand, the arguments against supervised study do not hold, for the very good reason that demonstratably better results are being produced by supervised study than by the old plan of study.

Besides, it is urged by those who have given this subject most careful study that if supervised study is introduced, the teacher must be relieved from some of the work of correcting papers and of conference hours.⁹ In addition, it should be made the basis of salary increase for the reason that it means heightened efficiency, and for this bonuses are paid in the industrial world. Schemes which include lengthening the school period to seventy or more minutes call for an increase in teaching force as may be seen by reading up the accounts of supervised study in various schools. But schools employing the 60-minute period—at present the most numerous—are proving equally efficient. This should be equally valuable in dollars and cents, even though this means increasing salaries instead of adding additional instructors.

By supervised study we mean here *study*, not *recitation*, in the school building, under the care of the regular instructor, not by study coach or unassigned teacher, under some plan of distributed periods, or partial periods, the principal ones in use being, 1. Weekly supervised study, five minutes being taken off each period daily, amounting to a total of thirty minutes daily. This period is used alternately, once a week by the various branches of study. 2. Alternate daily extra period. 3. Continuous divided study period. 4. Lengthened divided study period. 5. A certain percent. of the students' study periods are supervised, the time being gained by turning a recitation period into a study period.

Thus, under scheme 2, a daily extra period being added to the school day, it is a perfectly easy plan to have this period used alternately by the various studies. This plan is better adapted to the smaller schools where the range of studies is limited. It means only a slight lengthening of the school day, since it involves an extra period *for only one branch* each day. It is not as productive as other schemes since the supervised study periods in any one branch come too seldom.

⁹A. Hall-Quest—Supervised Study. Macmillan, 1917.

Scheme 3, the continuous divided study period, has the advantage of providing a study period to follow each recitation—although a short one—without lengthening the school day. This can be operated without difficulty in any school.

Scheme 4, which adds a period, or more, and divides the lengthened periods between recitation and study, is producing excellent results. It presupposes lengthening the teacher's school day, or adding members to the staff of instructors.

Scheme 5 is being operated successfully also.¹⁰

The most popular of these schemes is at present the sixty-minute period, divided forty-twenty between recitation and supervised study, although a considerable number of prominent schools are using seventy, eighty, and even ninety-minute periods, divided equally, generally, between recitation and study.¹¹

The technique may therefore be varied to suit circumstances and conditions, but the most desirable schemes are those which require the teacher to spend all of his time in contact with his own classes.

The successful operation of some such scheme of supervised study will depend upon the attitude of the teacher toward it. Modern language teachers especially should recognize the importance of this movement for their work.

If such a scheme does not obtain in a school as a whole, it may be desirable for the modern language teacher to get the superintendent to agree to some special arrangement, whereby the modern language pupils may spend a portion of the recitation period in directed study. Or the modern language pupils may be won to prepare their modern language lesson during their study period spent in the general assembly room, under the care of the modern language teacher.

If none of these plans are desirable, or feasible, then all efforts should be made to direct home study most efficiently. For this purpose the teacher should set about learning the best methods of directing pupils to study. The teacher should, further, study the particular needs of his students and frame his directions accordingly. The problem of scientific directions for modern language study has not yet been thoroughly solved. Many of the sugges-

¹⁰Hall-Quest—Op. cit. p. 99.

¹¹W. M. Proctor—Supervised Study on the Pacific Coast. School and Society, 6, 326-28. 1917. This article contains the most inclusive tabulations on supervised study available.

tions given in the references in this chapter are applicable to modern language study also.

We may presume that every teacher has an opinion on supervised study, either favorable or unfavorable, according, to some extent, to his experience in certain concrete situations, and thus it may not be necessary, or it may be impossible, to persuade individuals of the desirability of setting in motion a plan of supervised study on a large scale. However, we are sure of one thing, namely, that every one is *interested* in supervised study for the reason that is here, and it is going to be more common as time goes on.

In discussing supervised study we must differentiate between supervised study and giving directions how to study. Says Mr. Brown: "To teach pupils how to study is time well spent. However, teaching pupils how to study is not supervised study. Supervised study will often reveal among other things the need of instruction in how to study. The ordinary teacher can supervise study, but only an educational expert can instruct them how to study."¹²

Supervising study means seeing to it that the pupil knows what is wanted of him, understands the problem, is attacking the work in the right way, is using his materials and helps efficiently, is really working as hard as he can, and not dawdling away time on frills, is doing his notebook work neatly, so that it will not need to be re-done later in another notebook, is employing hygienic postures, etc.

It will be noted that this means working *with*, not *for*, the student. And here is where some teachers fail. This is an attitude hard to get by a teacher who has long been used to the old type of recitation. He needs often to get a new attitude towards the pupil, to learn to look on, to get the pupil's confidence, to come off the high horse, to be a friend instead of an autocrat, to find out what the real trouble is, and then not to remove it, but to teach the pupil how to remove it.

This is a big job, and we may as well recognize first as last that broad sympathy and big-heartedness are the first requisites. This is not taxing work, at least it need not be more so than the ordinary classroom work. That it is more pleasurable will, I think, be attested by most, if not all, who have tried it. It brings the

¹²L. H. G. Brown—Class Room Methods and Devices. Elementary School Teacher, 16, p. 180. 1916.

gratitude of pupils at all events, and that should be something to the idealist.

Giving directions how to study calls for more expert preparation. And it seems, from numerous reports, that here some teachers are making a mistake, when they think that supervised study means lecturing on methods of study. Such directions certainly have their place, but they must be concrete, brief, definite, and reiterated only until the majority of the class have adopted them. Such directions as "How concentrate your minds on the lesson," or explaining abstruse psychological theory of the factors of study are more confusing to the average child than useful.

Now we in the modern languages have begun to think about the problem of directing how to study, and since, in college, setting periods aside for supervised study will probably not be practicable, paying attention to methods of study will be the college's answer to this call for supervised study. And then we must recognize that for all teachers in the grade and high schools, as well as in institutions of higher learning, it will always be desirable to give directions how to study.

Let us therefore consider the matter briefly. Many directions as to schemes for efficient note taking, topic making, etc., which are given in books for studies in general will be found applicable to our study also, and teachers are hereby referred to two such works.¹³

In addition, some special problems in supervising modern language study must be considered here.

The pupil's first difficulty in point of time is to remember the foreign words. The method of overcoming this most economically and effectively is by having him memorize his words in context always, and not through the eye alone. All new words should also, as far as possible, be presented to him, *first* through the ear. He will then be forced to use it, for he is in nine cases out of ten defective in aural perception. He will consequently be disinclined to use his ear. It is too difficult; he is accustomed to get words through the eye.

We must, therefore, explain to him that it is nevertheless advantageous to learn words first through the ear because there are four ways of learning linguistic forms: by ear, eye, mouth and

¹³Cf. for instance, Hall-Quest, *op. cit.*, Chapters VII and VIII; also, S. C. Parker-Methods of Study in High School. 1915.

hand. Psychology teaches that when we get words by seeing them, some sort of groove is cut in our nervous tissue, thus leaving an impression. The visualizers in the class have been getting language in this way. That has become habitual with them, hence, easier for them.

But getting by way of the ear also cuts grooves, and additional grooves make for stronger impressions. This is really a much easier and surer way of learning, although at first it seems hard.

Now in learning lessons many pupils pronounce only mentally. But if circumstances allow, all matter studied should be pronounced aloud. It will be noted that this schools both ear and vocal organs. Supervised study of course prohibits this, and for this reason some of the study in modern language should be done at home where oral pronunciation is possible. In class room study, also, students must be advised always to pronounce the words by using the vocal organs, even though speaking aloud is not allowable. Many pupils do this naturally because they are of the motor type; others should be encouraged to form the habit.

To spatialize words is also a great help in remembering them. This can be done in many cases. If not by actually walking about in the room touching and simultaneously naming the objects, movements, etc., then by thinking of the objects as being in different places; the eraser at the board, the hat on a man's head, etc. Verbs should be thought of as accompanied by their proper movement or gesture, etc. The following five means also aid spatialization. (1) Clear thinking out of the basal meaning of words. For instance English *imbecile* is not a mere aggregation of letters meaning a weak person, but coming from Latin *in bacillo* means (one) leaning on a staff for support. Thus the word stands out visually and full of meaning and is not merely a collection of letters to be held in the mind by main force. Such German words as *Gebrechen*, *erfahren*, *vernichten*, or the French *inclination*, *maintenant*, etc., etc., should each take definite shape and standing. The student should be given the underlying picture and should be encouraged to study other words similarly, and always to get close to the basal meanings of words. If he does this the additional associations will prevent the words from fading from memory. This way of learning words also adds an aesthetic pleasure unknown to the mere memorizer of aggregations of letters. (2) Another means of remembering words is by material association, i. e., the

student must be taught to associate words with the objects which they name, whenever possible. Too many students associate the foreign word with the English word only, but experiments have shown that the association formed with the material object is stronger. Associating the word with movements, or gestures has already been mentioned under spatialization above. Another means is forming associations with the opposite (antonym), or with things similar (synonyms), or with things contiguous (derivative groups). (4) Some students will remember better when they write the words, therefore written exercises must be prescribed and their value for this particular thing emphasized. Attention should also be called to the fact that all of the exercises prescribed are given in order to reduce the work of learning. (5) Diagrams of word groups and functions also serve spatialization. Here it is important that the diagram should never be changed.

At a later stage in the course still other devices for remembering words most economically must be introduced. When reading texts, for instance, words not known must be looked up in the vocabulary. To facilitate this, an index to the vocabulary should be cut with a pair of shears, and in case of more bulky dictionaries, with a semi-circular gouge, to be had in any manual training shop. The meanings should next be written at the bottom of the page, and both the foreign word and the meaning enumerated. This saves looking up the word again when reviewing. When reviewing, the meanings at the bottom of the page should be covered up, and the memory taxed. Only as a last resort should the meanings be read.

It is not well to study unintermittently at an assignment until weariness sets in. Some students make this mistake. A plan more in keeping with the laws of memory is to stop before fatigue sets in, but to recur to it several times for review, and certainly once before coming to the recitation each day. However, a student should be able to study forty-five minutes at a stretch, as the supervised study periods require.

Remember always that there are many associations which can be formed with words, as indicated in the preceding paragraphs. Keep a list of these before you, if necessary, and select the one which fits snuggest in each case.

A second point of difficulty which many students meet is to remember inflectional forms. To remedy this the teacher must

take some time to give the class a clear understanding of the functions of the different parts of sentences.

Most high school and college students have very hazy notions about the functions of words in sentences. They do not even understand the terms often. These will have to be explained and learned. This will quite necessarily be done in English, gradually, of course, as they are needed, or as they occur in the grammar which is being used. Next, the phenomena must be thoroughly drilled by live exercises. In this the teacher will need to specialize.

The student must be made to see the importance of these drills. He must be told that he can never learn to read, nor to understand fluent speech before he has memorized many such phrases containing functional forms. We cannot memorize all of the words of a language. But we can understand and can speak with a relatively small vocabulary, provided we know the necessary functional forms: for instance: *à la deuxième, il y a deux, il échappera, für alle, liebte, er versieht sich mit*, etc.

Sentences, or secondary matter, are built up of such primary forms, which can be used in a thousand different settings. Hence the importance of memorizing these, once for all.

In teaching such forms, the teacher must be sure to provide ample iterative use for each form at the time it is introduced and must make sure that it recurs. This latter is, of course, difficult unless we take a review of the preceding lesson, day by day, as we should.

The trouble in these cases where inflectional forms cannot be readily recognized is that there was not adequate drill in primary matter earlier in the course. Some teachers rely too much upon unconscious assimilation to learn functional forms. This is a very proper auxiliary, but nothing will take the place of stiff, continued drill, and this must form a part of the work throughout the elementary and intermediate stages.

A third difficulty is inability to cover large assignments of reading. The remedy is to excuse such a person for a time from retelling or answering in the foreign language, substituting therefor telling the contents in English, or writing it at the board, or on paper. This will relieve him of part of the work and allow him to concentrate upon getting all the meanings. His difficulty probably is that he does not know enough words. The means for remembering words suggested above, should therefore apply here also. It

may be that he does not know the functional values. In that case grammar drill is to be prescribed. The trouble should be ascertained by test and the proper remedy applied. If it cannot be done in class, because he stands alone in his needs, then a private coach is to be prescribed for him.

If his trouble is too slight vocabulary, we must make plain to him that merely to recognize words in context is an easy task if he employs the devices we have prescribed above, and that if he will work faithfully at this for a dozen assignments, things will go much better. This almost invariably does the work.

A further student's difficulty is that he cannot understand the fluent speech of the class and especially that of the teacher. This trouble is encountered at the beginning of the term by persons trained under another master, perhaps by another method.

The remedy is to call his attention to the fact that the speech is really not as fast as it seems to him and that he cannot understand it merely because he has not had enough practice in what may be called unconscious assimilation. Listening attentively to the teacher and class will provide this. A further point in the remedy is to excuse him from speaking as long as necessary. We may make plain to him that the basic requirement in the work is that he be able to get the sense from the text, be able to translate it if called upon to do so, that he do the assigned writing and that he study sufficiently to master the vocabulary. The power to understand will come by listening, by speaking his lessons aloud as he prepares them, and by attempting answers to easy questions which we should gradually begin to ask him in recitation. To work up to this he should be asked to speak and write answers to the questions now found appended to numerous texts. His daily work can be tested by these answers, and by translation at the board, if necessary. The simplest questions concerning the content of an assignment may now be put to him orally, and as his power to answer increases, these should be made harder until they are comparable to those asked of the rest of the class. By this time his difficulty in understanding will, in most cases, have disappeared.

Not being able to express himself in the foreign language is a still more common complaint. This also is heard oftenest by students who have been trained by an indirect method, although all average and poor students have this trouble.

The difficulty arises from trying to express things which require a greater vocabulary than the student possesses, or which require a fluency of functional forms which is beyond him. The mistake is often the teacher's, since the student has been rushed ahead beyond his ability to do the work well. Here the value of the fast and slow section becomes especially evident. Very often teachers make the mistake of allowing undue difficulty to be thrust upon the class without proper gradual approach and without sufficient drill in all new forms and reading matter. A good practical rule is: If the average student does not speak 75% correctly, simpler matter should be introduced at once. If the gradation has been proper, a higher per cent should be spoken correctly, say 90. If less than 75% is spoken correctly, there is about as much harm being done as good, since it requires more effort to unlearn bad forms than to learn correct ones.

Another cause of this difficulty is that his course has not included sufficient exercise in conscious oral reproduction. In this case the teacher must devote more time to oral exercises of this sort. In the whole class, if a majority are in need of it, or in one of the sections, if he can conduct his class on the group plan, putting those in need of more elementary oral work in one section by themselves.

If there is only one or several individuals in need of this, a private coach must be provided for them, whose duty it will be to go over the advance lesson with them, using principally the question and answer method—in the foreign language, of course.

In connection with this whole subject of supervised study we must bear in mind that the difficulty of learning a language is in many cases not so great as the unlearning of incorrect forms. The teacher lightens his labor greatly by being careful to forestall mistakes which it would require more labor to undo than it would have required originally to learn correctly.

Teachers in all branches are continually confronted by this task of correcting wrong thinking and bad habits. The prime object of supervised study is to prevent these. To do this we may need to go more slowly and to make things easy. Many teachers are afraid of making things too easy. This springs from a most laudable desire to keep students properly busy. But there is another side to this. We must be sure to give them plenty of work, but to give it to them so that they know how to do it correctly, and most economically. Letting him flounder is good, after the most

scientific instructions have been given him as to how to swim, and after he has been shown how. Then he will not need to unlearn waste motion.

There is one thing which will come out of supervised study with certainty; our teachers will learn to make more intelligent and intelligible assignments.

In assigning a lesson the exact amount must be stated definitely and students must be taught to write down the assignment carefully, if necessary. Next, the nature of the work to be done must be indicated clearly. Illustrations of each kind of work called for should be worked out—with the aid of the class—and ample time for questions should be given. Questions should be invited and courted.

More still, supervising study will teach us that in most subjects it should not be merely an assignment, but a development lesson, which may take half of the period or more. A development lesson in which not only every step must be made clear, but several typical problems must be worked out. To do this the student must be shown what the nature of the problem is, what data are necessary to its solution and where in his book (s) he will find the necessary helps. In short, the student's work consists in solving problems after the model of those solved by the teacher, and the class should solve several such problems in the class during the development lesson. This will show up the student's difficulties at once, and also the way towards removing these.

Often the teacher has not studied the book thoroughly and does not know of its peculiar arrangement, its typographical errors, etc. If he makes the proper preparation to direct the student's work into every detail, he will, perforce, get acquainted with the book as well as the student's manner of working.

But will this not increase the teacher's work? If it does, it will have to be paid for. However, the most tedious and aggravating work, that of correcting ingrained bad forms, is done away with, largely, by this preventive work. It opens up also a new and interesting realm, a field for all the teacher's ingenuity, and one which will bring him the sincere gratitude of his students.

Better too easy than too difficult. If the lessons seem easy but the class approaches perfection in them, we are steering the right course. Prevention instead of correction is good pedagogy.

Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.

CHARLES H. HANDSCHIN.

THE PRONUNCIATION OF SPANISH "R"

Spanish as a language to be taught, occupies a unique field here in the United States. Unlike German, and to a lesser extent French, those who study it are actuated by the same motive as the European students of modern languages. They are near enough to the home of the language to feel the possible value of its study for practical reasons. They study Spanish because they want to learn to speak it. And so they are anxious to avoid that which we may call "accent"—or perhaps the term "brogue" would eliminate some phonetic confusion. If this is our aim, it is evident that we are more concerned with the difficulties of the "English-speaking student" who is trying to learn Spanish than with the differences and disputes of the Spaniards themselves. And should we not all be? The first is our problem; the latter is primarily theirs. But it is apparent that the limits of this article will not permit an exhaustive treatment of all "brogue" peculiarities heard in the Spanish of the English speaker; hence we shall here confine ourselves to that one which is most striking to the native.

Pronunciation is a matter of habit. In order to hear a "strange" sound, new memory connections must be formed, just as new nerve connections are required before you can perform an untried muscular act. So it is well to remember that when a student starts out to learn a foreign language, he is literally *unable to hear* those of its new sounds which are entirely strange to his ear.

It seems evident from the above, that *one is unable to "hear" a sound before he can produce it*; yet the contrary is also true, viz. *you can't vocally reproduce a sound before you have heard it*. The two go hand in hand and each is complementary to the other. In other words, mastery of a new sound is a matter of trial and error; and therein lies the value of a teacher. It is not sufficient to have someone tell you *how to try* but it is almost a necessity to have someone to tell you *when* and *where* you are making the error. In order to "hear" a new sound and then accurately reproduce it, *corrected* repetition, continued during a long period of time, is the only key to success.

The problem is more complicated when we remember the strong tendency we all have, to interpret anything new in terms of

that which we already know. To the child who has never seen one, the sheep is "a funny dog." To the German the English *th* is a *t*. It is this fact which is generally responsible for that which we here term "accent" or "brogue."

The great majority of those who speak English as their native language, have no end of trouble with the Spanish single *r*. This sound is responsible for the most palpable "brogue" peculiarity in their pronunciation. The average American, even after spending years among the Spaniards, where he spoke their language every day, is not only unable to produce the sound, but surprising as it may seem is not able to hear it. Hence I have considered it the most worthy of our consideration.

Of course the "single *r*" at the beginning of a word is "rolled" with the point of the tongue, just as is the "double *rr*". That pronunciation seems to be traditional,¹ so for our purposes it may be classed with the *rr* and therefore needs no discussion.

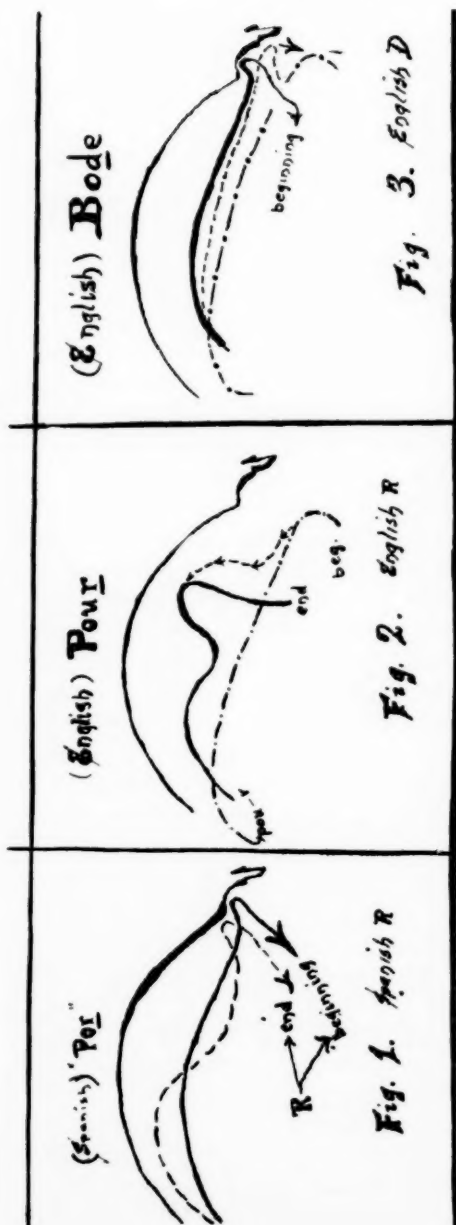
The accompanying cuts (figures 1 and 2) tell the story of the difference between the "tongue position" in the production of the Spanish and the English *r*. For purposes of comparison, fig. 3 is given to show the tongue position for the English *d*. They not only show point of contact, but as nearly as possible, indicate the direction of tongue movement. All three are tracings from the actual production and are not mere guesses.²

The reader will note at once that the Spanish "single *r*" and the English inverted *r* (which is the one most commonly used in the United States) have absolutely nothing in common, either in *position* or *movement*, and hence cannot then be alike in sound. Comparison with fig. 3 shows that the *d* is the very nearest equivalent the English pronunciation has to the Spanish *r*, but as seen, that is only as regards tongue contact.

By reference to these cuts again, it will be seen that in completing the pronunciation of the English *d* after contact is made, the

¹In a phonetic language such as Spanish, we would expect the *r* at the beginning of a word where it is "rolled," to be written *rr*. In early Spanish manuscripts it usually was, (as: "Rrey, rrueda, rroto, etc.) and it is not clear why the practice was discontinued. Possibly it was because the double *rr* at the beginning of a word was displeasing to the Spanish eye.

²In taking these impressions, I used a modification of Prof. Bagster-Collins' "half palate" method of taking "tongue positions." It seemed the most accurate of those available for my purposes. If you desire uniformity, and are compelled to take your impressions on the spur of the moment, "radiograms" are out of the question for you are not able to take all subjects to the laboratory.



(No. 1) This tracing is of an actual palate impression and tongue position in profile, for the Spanish word "por" produced by Mr. Sanchez, a native of Madrid. The text note indicates how it was made. Observe where the contact is made, as indicated by the dark line, and the direction the tongue takes in releasing, shown by the dotted line; and compare with those of figure No. 3.

(No. 2) This tracing is of an actual impression of the palate and a western American's tongue position in the pronunciation of the English word "pour." The so-called "inverted r" is the one almost universally used in North America, and hence the only one referred to in this article. The thickness of the tip of the tongue may vary, but it is to be noticed, as indicated by the dotted line with the arrows, that the tongue does not even approach a contact with the alveolar ridge. This line follows the actual impression made by the tongue. Eliminating the r there is little difference between other sounds in this "pour" and the Spanish "por" (shown in figure 1); do the two Rs have anything in common?

(No. 3) This tracing of the English word "bode" pronounced by a native western American, shows that the contact for the English d and that for the Spanish r are made in essentially the same place. But also compare the dotted lines in this figure with those of Fig. 1 and note that they indicate a vital difference in manner of release.

movement of the tongue is *forward* and *down*; but it will be noted that in the pronunciation of the Spanish *r* the tongue barely touches in the English *d* position and releases instantly—but *toward the back* (unless a dental consonant follows)—and then resumes its resting position.

The manner of "release" and "approach" are more important than the direction.³ If the American reader will observe his own pronunciation, he will note that in pronouncing a final *d* in an English word, his tongue may, without audibly altering the sound (and as a matter of fact it probably very often does) maintain contact with the palate until long after the sound ceases. That is merely one manifestation of the fact that in English you shift gradually from one sound into the next. But such is not true of the Spanish as I shall prove at some future time. In the case of the "single *r*," the contact is so slight as to make the "stop" at times almost inaudible; but nevertheless the "approach" is made very quickly. On the other hand, the manner of "release" makes the explosion so pronounced as to create a distinct "vowel," more especially noticeable when the *r* occurs before a consonant, as in *parte, pardo, larga*, etc.⁴

In the pronunciation of *r* with a succeeding *t, d, n*, or *l*, it is this sudden release of contact, the subsequent voiced explosion, and the return of the tongue to a contact in the immediate vicinity, which often deludes the untrained into hearing a rolled *rr* when it has not in fact been produced.

Kymograph records have been made to do service in proving this error in regard to the *r* being rolled; but it must be remembered that when a pendulum is set in motion, before it stops

³I am indebted to Prof. Barker, head of the Modern Language Department of the University of Utah, for the suggestion of this problem in Spanish pronunciation. In analyzing the problem as applied to French, he has prepared a valuable contribution to the phonetics of French pronunciation. His paper delivered before the National Association, at the Panama Pacific Exposition will be recalled by those who were present. For an intimation of this question of difference between the movement in French and that of English pronunciation, see his very interesting article entitled "End Consonants and Breath Control in French," *Modern Philology*, Nov. 1916.

⁴One phase of this phenomenon has previously been noted and later contradicted. Araujo in his *Fonética Kastelana*, p. 51, says: "La *r* final va seguida de una *ʔ* mas o menos perceptible (*morir*) producida al volver la lengua al estado de reposo después del golpe en los alvéolos, no sucediendo aquí lo que hemos visto en la *l* y *n*; tambien se percibe esta *ʔ* cuando la *r* cierra sílaba ante las labiales y dentales, y menos ante las palatales y velares: *barba* = U A R ʔ U A (giving *escarpia, Cordova, arte, carga*, etc. as other examples). Josselyn attempted, though unsuccessfully to refute this statement.

it will swing back and forth a number of times, after force ceases to be exerted, even though a moderate amount of friction is

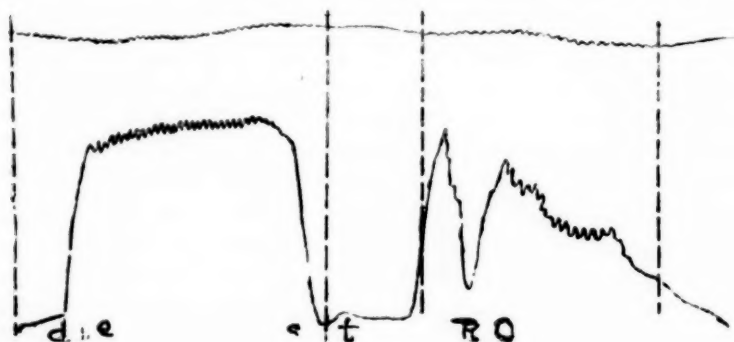


Fig. 4

(Explanation of Fig. 4, 5, 6, and 7)*

In that Kymograph records could be so made as to lend color to the theory you are trying to prove, I have chosen some of Prof. Josselyn's in preference

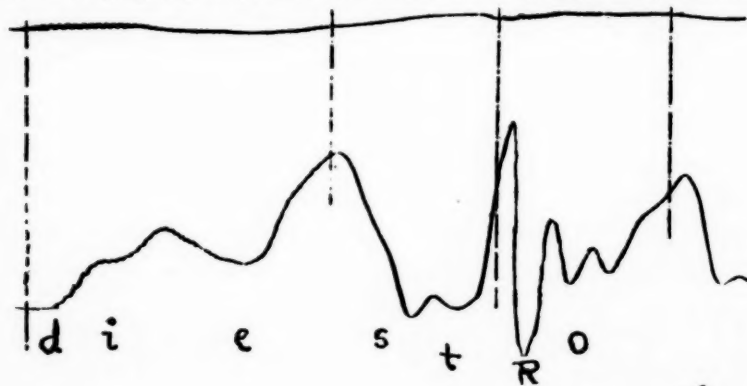
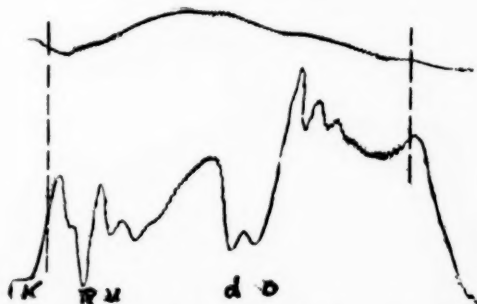


Fig 5

*The Spanish *d* has been said to be like the English, when it begins a word. Note that in both 4 and 5 herein, the lower line which records the escape of air, rises gradually, to the point of "explosion" in Fig. 4, and more rapidly in Fig. 5, for the *d* at the beginning of a word. Note also that as regards the complete stops, the rapid rise and fall of the curve indicates the same difference between Spanish and English as Prof. Barker has pointed out (in the article herein referred to) as existing between the pronunciation of French and English. In a later paper I shall discuss these problems. There seems also to be an indication of a distinct break between the *s* and the *t*, for which I have even better proof.

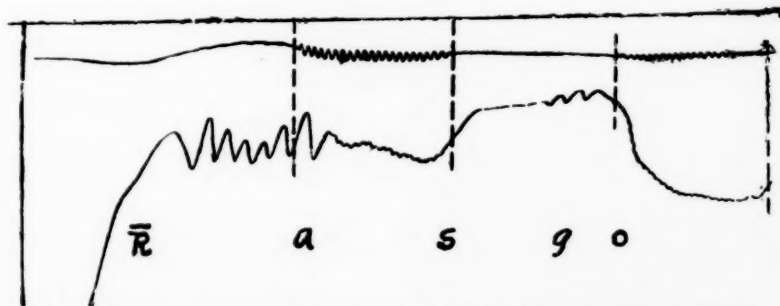
brought to bear upon it. Now the kymograph needle acts on the principle of the pendulum; it is therefore evident you may have some curves show on your record after the initial

Fig. 6



to my own in order that there might be no possibility of bias in their recording. In his work "*Études de phonétique espagnole*" he does not point out most of the facts I indicate in this article, and all interpretations are my own. The top line, records the vibrations of the larynx, the lower the air pressure as it comes from the mouth. The vertical lines intersect both lines of curves,

Fig 7



thus dividing the record into sections to indicate where the vocal cords begin to vibrate and where they cease. For this article, these curves are intended to illustrate the fact that for the Spanish single *r* the vocal cords start to vibrate before the tongue makes contact, whereas the contrary is true (as shown by fig. 7) for the *rr*. We therefore seem justified in saying: the Spanish single *r* begins with a "vowel." The *R* in these curves is placed directly under the depression caused by contact of the tongue, now note by reference to the intersecting vertical lines that the top curve indicates the vocal cords start vibrating before that contact takes place in Fig. 4, 5 and 6 and afterwards, in Fig. 7.

forces cease to operate. A typical example of that class of curve, and a possible false interpretation to which it lends itself, may be noted by reference to figure No. 5 herein: it begins with the highest long narrow curve, caused by the explosion of the *t*, and ends with the two short curves immediately following. In such curves, it is the latter two which might be interpreted, and often have been, as due to the "rolls" in the *r*. Reference to fig. 6, however, shows that such an interpretation would be a fallacy. There the same phenomenon manifests itself after the explosion of the *d*, shown in the highest curve, and the two short curves which again in this case follow; yet who would say that the *d* is rolled? (One true type of the "rolled *r*" curve may be seen in the record of *rasgo*, fig. 7.).

Now some people may roll the "*r*" in certain combinations, but we are interested only in the *average Spanish pronunciation*, and I have failed to discover any proof for a "rolled *r*" before the *t*, *d*, *n*, and *l*, either in my own records or the published ones of others.

It must be admitted that economy of effort (or some other such reason) leads most Spaniards to roll the *r* when preceded by an *l* or *n*.⁵ There are so few words in which the *r* occurs after *l*, however, that on the spur of the moment, I am unable to find an example; then words such as *honra*, *manresano*, *Enrique*, etc., are not very plentiful, and such as there are, usually are none too common in their use. The stranger to the language who meets with the few examples which might turn up, will, without knowing it, fall into the natural and inevitable Spanish

⁵It is usually said that the *r* in either of the positions above mentioned, is rolled because these sounds which border it are made by tongue contact taking place in the same neighborhood; but this reason is open to question. I hope later to submit what seems to me proof that the *r* preceded by *n* or *l* is rolled because the delicate movements it requires are interfered with; the *n* permits the preceding volume of air to escape through the nose, and the *l* at the sides of the tongue.

Compare this phenomenon with the intercalation of *d* between *n* and *r* in Old French *venrai* which became *vendrai*, and O. F. *volrai* > *voldrai*. The Spanish *honra* above mentioned was in Old Spanish sometimes spelled *onrra* "with the *r* reinforced after *n*" but as Ford remarks "the more popular O. Sp. form developed a *d* between the *n* and *r*." So the Latin *honratus* -a -um > (O. Sp.) *onrado* -a "whence with the development of a traditional dental stop, *ondrado*, the modern Spanish *honrado*." Note also the following developments: "Latin, *lumen*, *lumine* > *lumne* in O. Sp. and by dissimilation *lumre*, > with development of labial stop between labial nasal and *r*, *lumbre*; L. *nomen nomine* > O. Sp. *nomne* > *nomre* > with a *b* developed in the transition from *m* to *r*, *nombre*; L. *homo*, *hominem* > O. Sp. *omne* > *omre* > *ombre*." Consider the part played by the soft palate in such transitions.

pronunciation; for the phenomena which induce such a pronunciation in the native, will affect him in the same way.

The reader might reconsider the fact first mentioned above in the light of note number 5. He will observe that when the *r* occurs before an *l* or an *n*, it gives little trouble and may readily be pronounced as a single *r* without "rolling;" in such words as *Carlos*, *darlo*, *burla*, *sorna*, *carne*, *torno*, etc. Now if in this position the *r* pronunciation is again the common one (even though some might roll it) why teach it as other than a single *r*? After all does it not appear that the less a learner is reminded of a "rolled" single *r* (excepting of course, when it is found at the beginning of a word), the better off he will be?

The same thing may be said of *r* at the end of a word. To the scholar it is interesting enough to note, as well, that it here tends to become unvoiced and even to disappear altogether much as does the *d* in the common speech of the large cities. But the proper pronunciation is considered good form so why remind the student of that which only confuses him.

There yet remains another fact to point out concerning the Spanish *r*, and that the most important. If the reader will refer to figures 4, 5, and 6, he will note that vertical lines intersect both the top line of curves (which mark the vibrations of the larynx) and the lower (which record the air pressure as it comes from the mouth) thus subdividing them into sections to indicate where the vocal cords begin to vibrate, and where they end. In each illustration the letter *R* is placed directly under that part of its curve caused by the contact of the tongue with the roof of the mouth.⁶ Now in view of the fact that in each of these words the preceding consonant is unvoiced, it appears evident that an *essential part* of the Spanish *r* is a *beginning of vocal cord vibrations long before lingual contact is made*. It seems justifiable to say then, that the Spanish single *r* in reality *starts out with a "vowel."* The reader will remember that attention has already been called to the fact that its explosion (which with

⁶The highest point will show where the explosion was completed, and the lowest where the contact was made. The more abrupt the rise of the curve, the quicker was the release of contact made; the same interpretation may be applied to the fall of the curve, induced by the contact. It should be borne in mind that if the fall of the needle does not bring the curve nearly to, or below the level of that at the beginning of a word (or the line made by the needle when at rest) the record indicates more or less of a tendency toward a fricative, rather than a stop, depending on the duration of the contact, and pressure of the following sound.

a very few exceptions is voiced) causes it to end with a "vowel." The contact in the English *d* position is therefore merely an intermediate stage.

As seen by fig. 7, the same cannot be said of the *rr*. In this case the tongue vibrations have almost ceased before those of the vocal cords begin. (Inasmuch as the *rr* never occurs at the end of a word or before a consonant, there can be no problem as to whether it ends with vibrations of the tongue or of the vocal cords.) Then too, it is a well known fact, which anyone can readily prove, that the vibrations of the tongue for the *rr* make contact on the edge or behind the alveolar ridge, instead of so far forward as does the *r*. Hence it is apparent that the Spanish ear is justified in classifying the two *R*'s as separate letters of the alphabet, each representing an *absolutely distinct sound*. We have interpreted Josselyn's own curves and if in so doing we have succeeded in proving the statements above made, we are compelled to differ with him (as well as with many others) when he maintains: "We have seen that the *rr* has practically the same pronunciation as the *r*, and that the difference consists only in the number of vibrations."⁷

Results of the experiments here given prove that the sound of the Spanish "single *r*," which has never been completely analyzed by a phonetician, is best represented by the English equivalents "*u d u*" (with the *u* pronounced much the same as in *cut*). In this the *d* element is made with the slightest possible contact of the tongue, which releases by the point flying backward (as shown in figure No. 1) and immediately returning to its normal position flat in the mouth.

The American "brogue" or "accent" peculiarity may be prevented in the class room by teaching the sound: as an (*u d*) when it occurs after another consonant and is followed by a vowel. *Hombre* would then be taught as *o m b (u d) e*; *crudo* as *k (u d) u ð o*, etc.

It would be indicated by (*du*) when preceded by a vowel and followed by a consonant. Thus *arbol* would be pronounced

⁷P. 188, *Etudes de Phonétique Espagnole*. "Nous avons vu que *r* a sensiblement la même articulation que *r*, et que la différence ne consiste qu'en le nombre des battements. Si on ajoute à cela la quantité plus brève de la voyelle, on arrive à une identité complète. Alors on écrirait *carro*." The first part of this note reads:

"*La Grammaire de l'Académie* (par exemple p. 361) sépare toujours *ca-rro*. Ceci est fautif si la division *ac-cion* et *en-noblecer* est juste, car les cas sont les mêmes."

a (du) bol, forma as fo (du) ma, parte as pa (du) te, pardo as pa (du) do, etc.

It is evident that when the *r* comes in a word with a vowel on either side of it, an artificial vowel need no longer be inserted to bring about its proper pronunciation; it will then be rendered as a "quick" English *d*, the teacher seeing to it that the student does not allow the tongue contact to linger for the smallest fraction of a second. An *r* between vowels will then be given the student as—*d*: *pa (d) a* for *para*; *ku (d) a* for *cura*; *mu (d) o* for *muero*; etc.

As mentioned before, the *r* at the end of a word is very often unvoiced, just as the *d* is in such words as *Madrid*. In isolated cases it may even disappear but it is then a sign of careless and vulgar pronunciation and is certainly not to be cultivated. The former fact MAY be made use of in the class room, however, but the teacher is justified in using his own judgment in the matter. The *r* at the end of a word may be taught as (*du*) with the very slightest possible contact; the (*u*) element may be unvoiced, in which case it would be merely a very audible explosion; or both the contact and the explosion may be unvoiced making it a *very rapid explosive unvoiced (du)*. Of the three the second is perhaps the best, but the first will probably be found the least confusing to the student.

In conclusion, it will possibly be wise to stress two facts. Teachers⁸ should watch their own pronunciations when reading before the class or practising with them, and see to it that they be not caught in the trap which is waiting for their students—that "brogue" which they are teaching them to avoid. More harm can be done by such careless pronunciation on the part of the teacher,

⁸As a matter of fact, there are very few of our teachers of Spanish whose pronunciation has not become more or less tinged with the sounds of the English language which they perforce must use, and the "accent" peculiarities in the Spanish which they are continually compelled to hear from their students. Because of this fact, I have been compelled to reject their speech records by the wholesale. Among them you very often find individuals who pronounce their English and Spanish R's just the same. A good clear idea of the essential elements in a sound, or in other words, a "theory of pronunciation," would do much to guard against these insidious influences which are inevitable under the circumstances. Such influences are so subtle that they are at work when we are not aware of the fact. With the pronunciation of from 15 to 30 students, renewed and reinforced every year, presenting a united front against that of one teacher, it is apparent that something must be provided to aid him in his struggle. He is valiant and means well enough, but no one has approached the subject of Spanish phonetics from such a standpoint as to aid him in the formulation of a theory—no one has analyzed the various sounds in the Castilian language in the light of the trouble they might give the English speaker.

than all his instruction could ever remedy. We concluded that in order to teach an individual to reproduce a strange sound, we are compelled to teach him to "hear" it. If we are learning to dance, perform a new trick, work a strange puzzle, or any other new and untried muscular act, it is imperative that we first do it slowly, or comparatively so, and we can then later increase our speed. The teacher will save himself much trouble if he will bear this fact in mind and pronounce slowly, or rather separate each sound from its neighbors when teaching the Spanish "single *r*." Of course the movements required to produce the sound, are essentially rapid, and it will be found that the student *can* make them rapidly right at the start; it is only required that this sound be isolated from those (consonantal ones) which are on either side of it. Practise it alone first, and then work it into its different varieties of groups. Start your instruction by having the student say "today" quickly. Eliminate the "y" and add an explosive "s." You have then taught him to pronounce the Spanish word "*ires*."

The student in the beginning gets a confused impression for this new, and to his ear, strange sound which is interpreted as a "funny *d* or *r*" etc.; in other words, the learner is unable to "hear" the sound as it actually is, hence the teacher should pronounce it so as to isolate it, and at the same time exaggerate the *d* element in order that the ear of the learner may be given a vivid impression of the essential elements in the Spanish "single *r*." Call his attention to the *d* in it, and to the *u* which separates it from a consonant on either side—pronounce as *pa* / (*du*) / *te*, and *t(ud)u* / *cha*, for *parte*, *trucha*, *pu* / (*d*)*a* for *pura*, and *ko* / (*du*) / *ta* / (*du*) for *cortar*. Once the hearing is trained so he can hear the *d* the pronunciation of the words may be connected and the speed increased.

⚡ All this painstaking effort reminds us how important it is that the student shall not see the letter *r* as the symbol of the new sound, until he has practised it for days and possibly weeks; long enough at any rate, for the "new sound" habit to become so well formed that there can be but little danger of it being inhibited or interfered with by the "English sound" habit called up by the symbol *r*. If (when the teacher speaks naturally but at a moderate rate of speed) the student hears the Spanish *r* as an English *d*, it may be taken for granted that the habit is in process of formation.

OSCAR G. RUSSELL,

1st Lt. U. S. A., formerly Instructor in Spanish and Assistant in Phonetics, Columbia University, N. Y.

REVIEWS

The Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages, by Harold D. Palmer, University College, London. New York, World Book Company, 1917. 328 pp. \$3.00.

This book presents a synoptic view of the problems of Modern Language instruction. It is a kind of Sweet [*A Practical Study of Languages*] *renouvelé*—in the light of modern theories and the author's sixteen years' experience as a teacher. In fact, although the claims of what is called the Direct Method are here attacked, the principles which Mr. Palmer sets up are in the main identical with the views of Viëtor, Walter, Schweitzer and Rippman, a mention of whose names is studiously avoided. It is time that the Modern Language teacher were given an accurate historical survey of the Direct or Reform Method. Until we have this, it seems to me futile to discuss what is or is not the "direct" method. Barring this serious defect and a general tendency to avoid useful bibliographical aid, the present treatise is a valuable contribution to the pedagogy of our subject and should be of great help to all teachers of French in particular.

Mr. Palmer divided his material into: The Nature of Language, Factors of Linguistic Pedagogy, Principles of Linguistic Pedagogy—which is the crux of his treatise—illustrated by various Programs, ideal and special, and the Functions of the Teacher and the Student. To this are appended several charts and glossaries, including a list of the symbols of the *Association phonétique internationale*, wisely accepted because of their "adaptability" and "widespread diffusion in all countries (p. 140)."

In discussing the first question as to the nature of language, P. is quite right in insisting that "the learning of foreign languages must proceed on a philological basis and not a literary one." Any other view is of course sheer nonsense. Heness and Sauveur's principle of "direct imitation," Gouin's theory of "mental visualization," above all the idea that a Modern Language is a "living form of speech" have long since been thrown into the crucible of scientific inquiry and made available to him who will read the literature on the subject in the form of scientific principles. But it does not follow, as P. argues, that the *practical teaching* of foreign languages is itself a science, in the sense that phonetics, morphology, syntax, and so on, are sciences. For the simple reason that science is an end-in-itself, whereas teaching can only be a means to an end; in other words an "art," the principles of which have changed and will continue to change in proportion as the means are improved and adapted to the particular aims we wish to realize. It seems to me necessary to make this point, and having made it to keep it constantly in view, or we shall go on confusing pedagogy with scholarship to the detriment of both and to the advantage of neither. When, for example, P. makes the useful distinction between the *monolog* "longer" and the *polylog* "plus long" he is speaking from the conceptual point of view of idea and not from the scientific point of view of objective fact. "Scientifically" French here uses two words while English uses only one to express the same idea.

It is well-known that the founders of the Direct Method, in especial Viëtor, have advocated the necessity of stressing the "thought-content" of whatever is presented to the pupil to learn. Indeed, this together with the practical use of phonetics for the acquisition of correct sounds constituted the basis of the reform inaugurated in 1882. Thus the meaningless Ollendorff sentence is long out of date—fortunately. This point of view P. makes his own by dwelling on the "concept" as the unit of expression; whence he first divides the lexicography of speech into monologs (*quoique*), polylogs (*le plus grand*), miologs (*-ment* in *grandement*; that is, part of a word employed functionally) and alogisms (the omission of a word, as *tea-cup* for French *tasse à thé*); and then he classifies the material thus gained under the headings of Form of Morphology (including Phonetics, Phonology, Orthography and Etymology), Meaning or Semantics, and Function or Ergonics. Inasmuch as P. rightly considers the intelligent memorizing of phrases and sentences as the *sine qua non* of a successful language-method, his scheme seems to me not only stimulating from the point of view of interest but also organically sound. For valuable suggestions as to how to teach Vocabulary the book is bound to render excellent service. On the other hand, most teachers will find P.'s classifications needlessly involved, and the Ergonic Chart on p. 282 quite beyond the scope of their pupils' (not to say their own) comprehension.

Passing over P.'s discussion of the Factors of Linguistic Pedagogy as containing little that is new, we come to the best part of the book; namely, the chapter (p. 71) on Principles. Here the author points out that:

In all but special cases the ultimate aim of the student is presumed to be fourfold—namely,

- (a) The understanding of the language as spoken by natives.
- (b) The understanding of the language as written by natives.
- (c) The speaking of the language as spoken by natives.
- (d) The writing of the language as written by natives.

Since it is obvious that any good method must be *segregative*, as P. says, in the beginning; that is, it must present one unit of fact at a time, in order to become *aggregative* at the end—it is equally clear that the pupil should not be encouraged to reproduce the given unit until he "has had many opportunities of cognizing it passively." Thus it happens when we learn our maternal tongue, and so it should be if we really wish to learn a foreign one. In other words, in the beginning it will be a principle to have the pupil train his ear and subconscious feeling for the language by *listening* to and *observing* the teacher rather than by trying crudely to *imitate* him—for faultlessness must be the ideal of all foreign language instruction, and as P. reiterates throughout his book it is the hardest thing in the world to *unlearn* an error of speech since this means changing a bad habit with all its associations. And yet he observes correctly "if this principle is valid, then most of the teaching of the present day violates a natural law!" *Festina lente* might therefore well be the maxim of all teachers of the elements of Modern Languages. Not only that, but train the ear and subconsciousness of your pupils in every conceivable way before setting them actively to work.

In the second place, of the various ways of conveying to the pupil the meaning of a given unit, which is the best? Certainly P. is right again in saying

that: "In many cases, the Direct Method, as used by the average teacher [see, however, the qualifying remarks by Walter], resolves itself into the negative precept: *There must be no translation*. Obviously translation is in many cases the only *direct* way of conveying a meaning: for instance, the direct way of defining *heureux* is by giving the translation "happy," just as the polylog *il y a* is best defined by "there is," and so on. The conclusion is that there are four ways of conveying meanings, placed in their pedagogical importance as follows:

- (a) By material association. *Voilà le livre*.
- (b) By translation: *Je suis heureux* = "I am happy."
- (c) By definition: *Savoir* signifie *ne pas ignorer*.
- (d) By context: *Regarder*: Si je regarde par la fenêtre je vois des maisons, etc.

(a) and (b) are direct, the others indirect. If P.'s book served no other purpose, it should at least cure fanatics of the belief that translation serves no valuable purpose.

A third principle enunciated by P. is the value of learning by heart or "catenizing." It is true, many teachers will say: "let us memorize *words* and let us reason out *sentences*." But P. justly observes "in both cases the study of the language is ultimately based on memorizing, for the difference between memorizing 'words' and memorizing sentences is one not of *kind*, but of *degree*." Besides modern psychology has shown "that a given 'chain' is more quickly memorized in its entirety than when we memorize its 'links' one by one." Consequently our speech-material falls again into two groups: that which is primary and should be memorized and that which is secondary or can be derived from the integrally assimilated units. The value of this distinction is obvious; for instance, it is on this principle that it is pedagogically sound to learn the article with each French noun, for as P. remarks: "No one who has treated integrally the polylogs *la dent* and *le tonnerre* can possibly say or write *le dent* or *la tonnerre*."

And, finally, as gradation is necessary so that the student may reproduce his units rapidly (that is, without hesitating between syllables and words) and faultlessly, the vocabulary must be selected with the greatest care and perspicacity by the teacher. The categories according to which this may be done are treated by P. under the heads of Frequency, Ergonic Combination (words like *il*, *ce*, *il y a*, *bon*, *mauvais* etc.), Concreteness, Proportion (verbs are important but should not crowd out other parts-of-speech) and General Expediency.

In all this there is much to be grateful for and little to criticize. Clearly, in matters of detail, many teachers will differ with P.'s views as when he occasionally overstates the importance of this principle or that. I for one do not entirely agree that: "As an ultimate result of pure subconscious comprehension of *la porte* the sight of the door will evoke the reaction [laport], whereas the conscious comprehension will probably produce as an immediate reaction either [pɔ:t] or [lɔ pɔ:t]". But such differences are few or unimportant.

P.'s Ideal Standard Program is then the working-out of these principles in a form "most suitable for school children." The period of study is divided into three stages under the familiar names of Elementary, Intermediate and

Advanced, the whole covering from say five to seven years as the case may be. The general procedure differs little from that of the Direct or Reform Method as used in Continental European Schools. Specifically, however, these points are noteworthy: The Elementary stage stresses subconscious comprehension (see especially p. 142), much time is devoted to clear and definite explanations in the mother-tongue, the script used is *exclusively* phonetic—indeed P. advocates two years as the minimum before making the transition to the ordinary spelling, during the first three months the pupil's active work consists in "articulation exercises" (p. 160). The Intermediate stage, lasting from one to three years, develops memorizing devices, the secondary matter is worked up by means of "ergonic charts"—some of which are very useful, and the transition is made to the ordinary or "traditional" spelling. And, lastly, the Advanced stage, also from one to three years, develops rapid reading, free composition and translation, some conversation, and above all stresses the principle of combining or "aggregating" the various units. All this is copiously illustrated with exercises, remarks on procedure, questionnaires, etc.

As for the Special Programs, these are devised for such students as have a special aim, such as reading, speaking, and so on, in view. Some interesting remarks are made (p. 230) on *corrective* exercises, which, however, might be further developed. Under the heading of the Functions of the Teacher, one point made by P. seems to me of capital importance; the "ideal" teacher must have a "thorough knowledge of both the foreign language and the student's native tongue." I need hardly elaborate how essential this is in our American schools and colleges today—particularly in view of the woeful neglect by our English teachers of such subjects as Phonetics and Grammar (or as P. says Ergonics). Besides, how can we teach the *correct* attitude toward the use of the generic and partitive constructions in French, the position of the adjective, such polylogs as *depuis quand* and *je l' ai vu hier* unless we not only know but *understand* their English equivalents?

But I must conclude. As I hope to have shown, P.'s book is tremendously stimulating. It touches vitally upon almost all the points that should interest the Modern Language teacher. It is suggestive, rich in detail, thorough and enlightening. It is unfortunate that P.'s principle to consider a language as "philology" has prevented him from dealing at all with the teaching of literature or at least from pointing out when and how the transition should be made—for as the "reformers," particularly Hovelacque and others, have shown the study of "literature" versus "literary history" (that is, names and dates) has also been furthered by the reform. Here again P.'s neglect of bibliographical material is seriously to blame. It might be said too that since the language treated is French, P.'s model exercises are often sadly lacking in the great French qualities of lightness and *esprit*; the fact is they are very often dull and matter-of-fact.

Nevertheless these minor defects should not blind us to the seriousness of P.'s effort and the masterful manner in which he has carried it out. *The Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages* is a tribute to the excellent work in our field for which the University College in London is so favorably known today.

WILLIAM A. NITZE.

University of Chicago.

Conversations Militaires. A conversation book for soldiers, with notes and vocabulary, by E. E. Patton. D. C. Heath & Co., 1918. 16mo. VI + 85 pp. 40 cents.

There are seventeen of these military conversations followed in each case by notes giving explanations and additional vocabulary, and covering the most important phases of the American soldier's life in France. The most admirable feature of the book is the excellent quality of French employed. The French lieutenant Jean J. Labat, who writes a short preface, tells us the language is good, and to the American teacher, as well, the character of the phrases reveals them as real French and not such stuff as the most of our conversation manuals are made of. But it is just this virtue which will prevent the book's being widely used in our colleges at least. For the ordinary S. A. T. C. student, if I may generalize from my experience at the University of Chicago, it would be a question simply of learning the conversations by heart and being fitted to speak that much and no more. The notes do not add words enough, verbs enough, to admit of the construction of many additional sentences by the student. He must already have a more considerable knowledge of French than most of our students, in the training corps, possess. And after all, what most of our soldiers need in the way of French, is just what the rest of us need in France—the ability to ask for ordinary things, to reply to ordinary questions; in short, to carry on the ordinary conversations.

On the other hand, for liaison officers between French and American commands, the book is excellent, both as to situations foreseen and phrases chosen. It will also be valuable as a dictionary of reference to those of us at home who have met and are meeting every day in the French books about the war, technical expressions which we do not know the exact equivalent for, and which we are glad to find explained.

In a book of such excellence, it may seem invidious to pick out small faults, but I cannot help wondering why the author every now and then renders the French pronunciation of some word by English equivalents, though the student is evidently expected to be able to pronounce French, since there is no systematic attempt at phonetics. Moreover, the English equivalent does not usually give the French pronunciation. For *civil*, *see-veel* might pass (p. 28), but *gay* does not render *gué* (p. 20); *komplo*, *complot* (p. 29); *pye*, *paille* (p. 38); nor *swee*, *suil* and so on in instances too numerous to note in this short review.

The proof-reading is good. I note only one error—*carbrurateur* for *carbureteur* (p. 61).

FRANCIS H. ABBOT.

University of Chicago.

Goethes Hermann und Dorothea, with a life of the author in German, appendices, German exercises, questions, notes, and vocabulary by Julianne A. Roller. Boston, Allyn and Bacon, 1917. XXX + 302 + 107 pp.

Outwardly this edition presents a most attractive appearance. The press-work is exceptionally good and in the way of illustrations there are not only the

customary Ramberg pictures but the biographical sketch is aptly and strikingly adorned with well-executed half-tones and the several cantos bear as head-pieces reproductions of the Simmons mural paintings in the Library of Congress.

According to the Preface this edition "has been prepared with the special aim of bringing this classic within easy reach of high school pupils, even those in the two-year course." Against such a doctrine the reviewer would enter a strong protest, a protest which may perhaps lay claim to special timeliness in that within the next year or two a tendency will doubtless manifest itself to turn for purposes of school reading from the modern Germany to the older Germany of Goethe, Schiller, and the Romanticists. Such attempts to read classics with pupils who are still struggling with the very rudiments of the language is pedagogically thoroughly unsound and can but result in failure. What it has led to in the present instance may be seen from such admonitions as "inveted order is regularly used in conditional clauses when *wenn* is omitted" (Elegy, l. 39; Canto I, 88, etc.), and from the habitual supplying of an omitted auxiliary, a practice that the Notes of Canto VI indulge in no less than sixteen times. Pupils unfamiliar with such elementary rules or without feeling for such basic constructions are in no way prepared to approach what is after all from the point of view of language as style one of the most difficult of Goethe's poems.

The editor, who, to judge from the numerous Latin citations, has approached German by way of Latin, has in some respects shown considerable pedagogical tact and skill, so e. g. in the linking up in the *Einleitung* of the various incidents in Goethe's life that might interest the younger pupil. And yet, this very *Einleitung* shows conclusively that her knowledge of German, in itself not inconsiderable, and her command of the subject matter in its manifold phases are for editorial purposes altogether inadequate. The following quotations will serve to substantiate these assertions: "Er gehörte also der Klasse der Menschen." "Als er acht Jahre alt war, konnte er schon . . . Griechisch schreiben." (p. X) "Von den neueren Werken war Klopstocks Messias sein Liebling." (p. XIV) "Heidenröslein, das auch seine neue Liebe entdeckt." "Nicht der geringste Einfluss auf Goethe war seine Liebe zu Friederike, die schöne Tochter des Pfarrers Brion." "Eine der schönsten (d. h. Gedichte) ist." (p. XVI) "Götz folgt Shakespeare in Form. Es ist . . . (p. XVIII) "Auf seiner Einladung." (p. XIX) "viele seiner schönsten Lyriken." "zum Adel erhöht." "Die Anfänge von Faust . . . fallen in diese Zeit (die ersten zehn Jahre in Weimar)" (p. XX) "Er wandte sich jetzt (nach Schillers Tode) zur Wissenschaft." "Der zweite Teil (des Faust) erschien. . . (1831) kurz von seinem Tode." "Vater und Mutter . . . waren schon lange fort (d. h. gestorben)" (p. XXIV). "Dazu hatte er abe eine Antwort" (p. XXVII). "Als Jüngling wünschte er sich Professor an einer Universität zu werden." "Auch in der Optik, . . . Geologie . . . war er nicht nur Gelehrter, sondern auch Bahnbrecher." (p. XXVIII) "Seine Lieder allein erklären ihn 'den deutschen Dichterfürsten' . . . und seine Romane stehen noch jetzt unter den besten." "Seiner war ein verzeihender Geist." (p. XXXIX).

The commentary is in the main well balanced and not without merit. The text itself is printed with scrupulous care, an observation which does not, however, cover the *Elegie*, the forty-five lines of which show two misprints

(ll. 23 and 31). In perhaps a dozen instances omissions and even emendations have been made to bridge over places that might prove awkward in mixed high school classes. Opinion will differ as to the necessity of these. To the reviewer for one the substitution of *die kränkliche*, etc., for *die Wöchnerin* in numerous places seems mere prudery.

There is an extensive apparatus in the way of Appendices (A-H, pp. 201-301) differing very widely in value and character. Appendix A gives a classified list of common quotations; B-E supply the literary-critical matter that usually finds a place in an Introduction; F consists of a bibliography, G of questions on the text (in German); H of Exercises. In both G and H un-idiomatic German abounds. To take only a single example, the list of grammatical terms on p. 283 has such expressions as *Gemeinschaftsbefehl* (polite command), and *Aktiva* and *Passiva* as plural forms in the grammatical sense. The rather pretentious chapter on Meter (pp. 252-259) gives no evidence of a real understanding of the subject. One wonders whether the editor knew that the *Elegie* prefacing the poem is written in the elegiac distich when that fact is nowhere referred to and when in the note on p. 255 *Alexis und Dora* is cited as an example of that form of verse. Similarly, there is no mention of the fact that Voss's *Luise* is written in the hexameter, and Goethe's use of this meter in his own poem is attributed in at least one place (p. XIV) directly to the influence of Klopstock.

B. J. Vos.

Indiana University.

NOTES AND NEWS

The admirably planned Albany meeting of the New York State Modern Language Association, the program of which was printed in the November of the JOURNAL, had to be abandoned on account of the Influenza epidemic. We hope, however, that most of the papers that were prepared may be read at the various sectional meetings and eventually be published.

The annual meeting of the Association of Modern Language Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland was held in Princeton on November 30. The chief business transacted was the acceptance of the plan for the New Federation forwarded to the President by Professor Robert H. Fife, Jr., of Wesleyan University. Excellent papers were read by Professor Davis of Rutgers, Dean Murray Brush of Johns Hopkins, Miss Fernandez of the New Utrecht High School, Brooklyn and Dr. Thatcher Clark of the Ethical Culture School, New York City. All speakers dealt of course with the general subject of the program.

Will the modern languages play a larger or smaller part in American education after the war? How can we best take advan-

tage of the interest in foreign nations aroused by the war to improve the status of modern languages in the curricula of our schools and colleges and to increase the enthusiasm and industry of our pupils: (a) on the cultural side; (b) on the practical and vocational side of the subject?

The following officers were elected: President, Louis A. Roux, Newark Academy and New York University; First Vice-President, Murray P. Brush, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.; Second Vice-President, Claudine Gray, Hunter College, New York City; Secretary and Treasurer, Anna Woods Ballard, Teachers College, Columbia University, N. Y. Directors: Marian P. Whitney, Ex-President, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.; to 1920, Annie Dunster, Wm. Penn High School, Philadelphia, Pa.; to 1920, Luise Haessler, Hunter College, New York City; to 1921, Wm. Addison Hervey, Columbia University, N. Y.; to 1921, Irving L. Foster, Penn. State College, State College, Pa. Directors for Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations: to 1920, Charles A. Downer, College of the City of New York, N. Y.; to 1921, Wm. R. Price, University of the State of New York.

Due to oversight the following paragraph was omitted from the account of the Chicago meeting which appeared in the October number of the *JOURNAL*:

The informal dinner held on the evening of May 3 was attended by some thirty persons. Mr. John D. Shoop, Superintendent of Chicago Schools, gave a short and pleasing address of welcome. The President of the Association, Professor B. J. Vos, Indiana University, followed with a short address in which he called attention to the problems now before modern language teachers and dwelt especially upon the matter of German instruction. After a short report by the secretary-treasurer, Prof. C. H. Handschin, of Miami University, the time was given over to sociability and meetings of committees.